

DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 171 469

RC 011 383

AUTHOR Hammerman, Donald R.
TITLE Outdoor Education: A Product of the Times. Taft
Campus Occasional Paper No. 19.
INSTITUTION Northern Illinois Univ., Oregon. Laredo Taft Field
Campus. Dept. of Outdoor Teacher Education.
PUB DATE 74
NOTE 24p.; Best copy available
EDRS PRICE MF01/PC01 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Camping; Cultural Context; *Economic Factors;
Educational Change; *Educational Development;
Educational History; Educational Philosophy;
Educational Psychology; Educational Trends;
Elementary Secondary Education; Family Mobility;
*Outdoor Education; *Political Influences; Resident
Camp Programs; Social Change; *Social Influences;
*Urbanization

ABSTRACT

In the years from 1930 to 1960 a number of socio-cultural forces influenced the emergence of outdoor education with the five major areas of influence including philosophical, social, economical, political and educational factors. Philosophical factors were found in the doctrines of Rousseau, Herbart, Pestalozzi and Spencer with the ideas of William James, John Dewey and Alfred Whitehead lending further support. Economically, the country experienced the worst depression in its history, an industrial revolution, and a world war which, while serving to strengthen the economy, created social problems which contributed to the need for outdoor education. Social factors included a changing family structure with accompanying problems such as divorce, alcoholism and juvenile delinquency. The stresses of the time were reflected in new demands placed on public schools; schools were asked to cope with problems once the sole responsibility of the family. Migration to the city and the spread of urbanization brought about noise, congestion, and a new appreciation for the peace of the wilderness. Schools responded to these influences with educational camping programs that would put children in touch with nature, give them laboratories for democracy in action, broaden their range of experience, and provide guidance in the mental, physical, social, emotional and aesthetic aspects of living. (DS)

* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *

ED171469

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS
MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

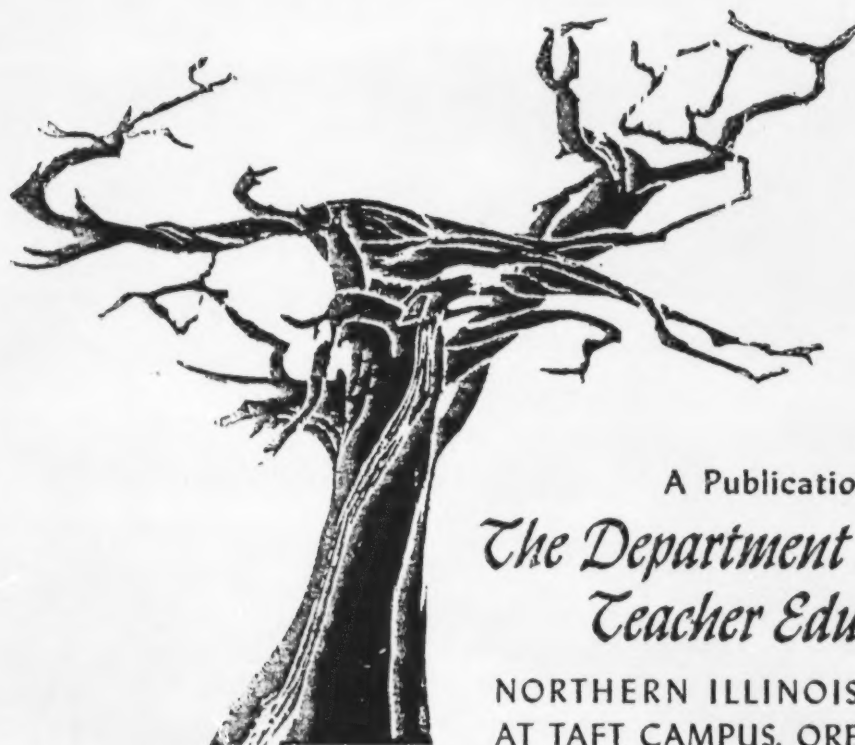
*Donald R.
Hammerman*

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES
INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH,
EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
EDUCATION

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRO-
DUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM
THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGIN-
ATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS
STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT
OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE



A Publication of
*The Department of Outdoor
Teacher Education*

NORTHERN ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY
AT TAFT CAMPUS, OREGON, ILLINOIS

Re011383

TAFT CAMPUS OCCASIONAL PAPER NO. 19

OUTDOOR EDUCATION:
A PRODUCT OF THE TIMES

BY

Donald R. Hammerman

1974

This occasional paper was adapted from
Historical Analysis of the Socio-Cultural
Factors That Influenced the Development of
Camping Education, Unpublished Dissertation,
1961, Pennsylvania State University, Donald
R. Hammerman.

Taft Campus Occasional Papers provide a means of
sharing professional documents prepared primarily
in connection with the on-going program in the
Department of Outdoor Teacher Education, Northern
Illinois University, but which maybe more useful
if given a wider distribution. Unless otherwise
noted, they are not copyrighted.

OUTDOOR EDUCATION: A PRODUCT OF THE TIMES

This paper will explore, in some detail, the vast web of interrelated socio-cultural forces which led to the evolvement of school camping or resident outdoor education in modern education. Discussion of these influences is, for the most part, confined to three decades, nineteen thirty to nineteen sixty. During this period, as in any other, education had to adjust to contemporary conditions if it was to serve the needs of society. It is doubtful whether any other thirty year period in the history of the United States has been affected by as many social, economic, and technological changes of such magnitude. During these years the United States encountered and survived the worst depression in its history; it fought the largest scale war in its history; and today it is poised on the threshold of an age of technology that is frightening in its implications.

The stresses and strains of these turbulent times were reflected in new demands which were placed upon the public schools. The schools were asked to cope with problems which were once the sole responsibility of the family. The transformation of the family structure brought about, in part, by industrialization and urbanization made, "...that ancient institution less able to discharge its historic obligations -- intellectual, moral and social."¹

These uncertain times saw a number of changes in the American culture. Science and modern technology had destroyed the rural way of life. A society which formerly had been self-sufficient was transformed into a mass of interdependent peoples. The disintegration of the family unit was accompanied by a corresponding rise in juvenile delinquency. Socialistic influence was felt particularly during the depression years when care for the needy and the socially distressed was gradually shifted from private to public agencies. This was also an era of anti-intellectualism with "thought" being regarded by some educators as a mere instrument to action. There was general disregard for the contemplative life as the ideal. This view manifested itself in public education in several forms such as the "activity curriculum" and "the project method."

World War II brought further responsibilities to the public schools. Schools were expected to assume still more custodial functions of the home, and many educational programs were geared to aid in the war effort. Following the war, the nation experienced a rapid expansion in population.² The shift from rural to urban and suburban living continued at an accelerated pace;³ and automation reached new highs in industry, in the home, and in education. It is all the more amazing that during the Forties when there was a general lack of qualified

1

Educational Policies Commission, The Unique Function of Education in American Democracy (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1937), p. 3

2

The population increased nineteen million between 1940 and 1950. Statistical Abstract of the United States 1952 (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Commerce, 1952), p. 6.

3

Between 1940 and 1950 the rural population showed a decrease of three million while the urban population increased by twenty-two million. Ibid., p. 29.

teachers, classrooms were overcrowded, and education was subjected to vicious attack that outdoor education was able to evolve at all. Significantly, school camping did not realize its greatest growth until after the close of World War II when the economy had recovered and the teacher shortage was, to some extent, relieved.

In addition to the prevailing educational theory and philosophic thought of the times, contemporary education during the period 1930 -- 1960 was affected by a number of social, economic, and political influences. These forces in combination and to a varying degree influenced school curriculum and methods. Outdoor education was simply one aspect of curricular change which developed during a period of educational uncertainty.

I. PHILOSOPHICAL ROOTS OF OUTDOOR EDUCATION

Although our discussion is chiefly concerned with contemporary forces that were instrumental in the evolution of outdoor education, it is impossible to overlook the influence of certain eighteenth and nineteenth century European educator-philosophers. For example, elements of a philosophical basis for outdoor education can be found in the doctrines of Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Herbart, and Spencer.

Rousseau preached that healthful, physical activity was of prime importance in a child's education. He asserted that the child's natural interests and curiosity should be utilized to the fullest. He advocated that education be less literary and linguistic and more sensory and rational. He believed that children should learn directly from experience rather than indirectly from books. "'Our first teachers', he proclaimed, 'are our feet, our hands and our eyes. To substitute books for all these...is but to teach us to use the reason of others.'" 4

Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi made use of real objects and firsthand experiences in his farm home school for beggar children in Switzerland. Not only did Pestalozzi teach his pupils the usual Three R's, but also the practical skills of farming, housekeeping, spinning and weaving. A modern corollary in outdoor education is that of school farming often operated in conjunction with a school camp, and the stress placed upon housekeeping activities in the resident outdoor school as a vehicle for teaching responsibility. Pestalozzi taught geography and nature study in the school yard. His method of instruction was based on beginning experiences which pupils later combined to formulate principles and generalizations of their own.

Two of Johann Friedrich Herbart's five formal steps also have a distant relation to some elements of present day outdoor education. In his first step, Herbart emphasized the importance of motivating the learner so that he is in the proper frame of mind to receive new knowledge. The fifth step, application, implied the need for the child's self-activity if his learning was to be successful. Both of these elements are basic to the outdoor education idea. As Mrs. Johnson's experiment at Fairhope, Alabama demonstrated, some teachers for years have utilized firsthand experience in the outdoors to motivate learning.

In exploring the question, "What knowledge is of most worth?", Herbert Spencer wrote:

...the system. [of teaching and learning] is grievously at fault.... While the right class of facts is withheld, the wrong class is forcibly administered in the wrong way and in the wrong order. With that common limited idea of education which confines it to knowledge gained from books, parents thrust primers into the hands of their little ones years too soon, to their great injury. Not recognizing the truth that the function of books is supplementary -- that they form an indirect means to knowledge when direct means fail -- a means of seeing through other men when you cannot see for yourself; they are eager to give second-hand facts in place of first-hand facts...only when his acquaintance with the objects and processes of the household, the streets, and the fields, is becoming tolerably exhaustive -- only then should a child be introduced to the new sources of information which books supply; and this not only because immediate cognition is of far greater value than mediate cognition; but also, because the words contained in books can be rightly interpreted into ideas, only in proportion to the antecedent experience of things.⁵

Thus Spencer in his day gave expression to a concept that ultimately was to become basic to outdoor education in a later day.

The principles advocated by Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Herbart, and Spencer are, of course, simply basic to sound teaching. The application of these principles, however, would appear to lend themselves more readily to the methods of education in the out-of-doors than to indoor classroom procedures. Their importance to outdoor education does not lie in the superiority of one method over another, but rather in that support of some of the basic principles of outdoor education can be found in the writings of these early educator-philosophers. Their collective influence permeated teaching practices during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries and to this day is reflected, to some extent, in educational thought and practice.

The Influence of Contemporary Educational Philosophy.

In his last Lowell Lecture delivered at Harvard University in February, 1925 Alfred North Whitehead spoke on "Requisites for Social Progress." He expressed the prevailing thought of the day regarding the ills of education when he commented:

My own criticism of our traditional educational methods is that they are far too much occupied with intellectual analysis, and with the acquirement of formularized information....we neglect to strengthen habits of concrete appreciation of the individual facts...and...merely emphasize abstract formulations....⁶

Whitehead went on to point out:

⁵Herbert Spencer, Education (New York and London: D. Appleton and Company, 1914), pp. 46-47.

⁶Alfred N. Whitehead, Science and the Modern World, Lowell Lectures, 1925 (New York: The MacMillan Co., 1925), p. 277.

At present our education combines a thorough knowledge of a few abstractions, with a slighter study of a larger number of abstractions. We are too exclusively bookish in our scholastic routine. The general training should aim at eliciting...concrete apprehensions, and should satisfy the itch of youth to be doing something.⁷

In the *Aims of Education*, Whitehead recommended that children should experience the joy of discovery in their learning. He also pointed out the value of firsthand experience dealing with what he terms "real facts." Whitehead advocated assigning pupils mathematical problems such as: "Survey...a field, draw a plan of it to such and such a scale, and find the area."⁸ Whitehead's recommendations that education should provide experiences which: satisfy youth's itch for doing, "elicit concrete apprehensions," lead children to the joy of discovery, and acquaint them with "real facts" were later to be reflected in the aims of outdoor education.

Whitehead was hardly the first educator-philosopher to speak and write on this theme. The commentary that education deals too much with abstract knowledge and not enough with concrete, meaningful experience is a familiar theme; one that has been expressed time and again. The same basic theme, as we have seen, was evident in the writings and teachings of Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Herbart and Spencer. Among the more recent philosopher-educators to play upon this oft repeated theme were William James and John Dewey with their doctrine of experimentalism.

The pragmatism of James and Dewey. The term pragmatism was derived from the Greek word "τὴν πα-γυν," meaning "action," from which our words "practice" and "practical" come.⁹ The pragmatic method of James and Dewey was simply a device for settling philosophical disputes. The essence of the pragmatic method was that in serious dispute one notion or view as opposed to another should make a practical difference if it were true. If no practical difference could be attributed to either view then the alternatives "practically" would mean the same thing -- consequently, all dispute was idle. Pragmatic thought was a revolt against traditionalism; a reaction to essentialism and perennialism. The pragmatists would say, "nothing is true or sound or of any importance whatever unless in some way or another, directly or indirectly, immediately or ultimately, it makes a difference."¹⁰ In other words, knowledge to be sound, to be of any worth, should make a difference in the life of the learner. The psychologist would say a change in behavior must take place.

⁷ Ibid., p. 278.

⁸ Alfred N. Whitehead, *The Aims of Education* (New York: The MacMillan Company, 1929), p. 17.

⁹ William James, "Pragmatism, A New Name for Some Old Ways of Thinking," lecture delivered in New York, 1907, *Essays in Pragmatism* (New York: Hafner Publishing Company, 1957) p. 142.

¹⁰ Thomas H. Briggs, *Pragmatism and Pedagogy* (New York: The MacMillan Company, 1940), p. 116.

Pragmatic thought maintained that change is constant and that under these circumstances life should be a process of continual experimental adjustment to changing conditions. From the pragmatic point of view the essential function of education was to place the pupil in a position to develop his own set of values and to reconstruct his own experiences as the situation demands rather than to accept without question the values and results of the experiences of others. Outdoor education developed at a time when American education was under strong influence by the pragmatic view for learning to make a difference both culturally and socially.

When interpreting the work of any great innovator it is best to read what he actually had to say rather than gaining such information at second hand. In examining what others have said about the new ideas of a creative thinker one often loses the very essence of the "new idea." Two of John Dewey's earliest works, The School and Society, and The Child and the Curriculum, first published in 1899 and 1902, grew out of his experience as administrator of one of the country's first laboratory schools at the University of Chicago. These writings revolutionary in their day, provide fresh insight into Dewey's approach to education as a child-centered experimental process. Dewey's views are pertinent to our examination of contemporary philosophical influences on outdoor education from the standpoint that they permeated the mainstream of educational thought during the first part of the twentieth century. This was the educational ferment out of which outdoor education emerged.

In School and Society, Dewey wrote, "...we cannot overlook the importance for educational purposes of the close and intimate acquaintance with nature at first hand..."¹¹ He continued, "No number of object-lessons, got up as object-lessons for the sake of giving information, can afford even the shadow of a substitute for acquaintance with the plants and animals of the farm and garden acquired through actual living among them, and caring for them."¹² Dewey advocated making each school "...an embryonic community...permeated throughout with the spirit of art, history, and science."¹³ In the ideal situation he claimed, "The life of the child would extend out of doors to the garden, surrounding fields and forests. He would have his excursions, his walks and talks, in which the larger world out of doors would open to him."¹⁴

One of Dewey's major contributions was to inject the need for experience of all kinds into the curriculum. He maintained that development was not simply taking something from the mind, but rather the development of experience and into experience is what is really needed in curriculum. Learning calls for "...continuous reconstruction moving from the child's present experience out into that represented by the organized bodies of truth that we call studies."¹⁵ Dewey maintained that educators should know how to utilize both the physical and social surroundings in such a way that they would contribute effectively to worthwhile experiences for those who were learning.

¹¹John Dewey, The School and Society (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1959), p. 11.

¹²Ibid., p.11.

¹³Ibid., p. 29.

¹⁴Ibid., p. 35.

¹⁵John Dewey, The Child and The Curriculum (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1959), p. 11.

The emphasis in outdoor education for the creative use of leisure is consistent with Dewey's philosophy. "...the central problem of an education based upon experience is to select the kind of present experiences that live fruitfully and creatively in subsequent experience."¹⁶ Another of Dewey's views which found acceptance in outdoor education was "...the importance of the participation of the learner in the formation of the purposes which direct his activities in the learning process..."¹⁷

Dewey constantly sought to resolve the traditional dualisms of school and society, learning and doing, the child and curriculum. He strove for unification of these dualisms through the interaction of ideas, knowledge and thinking. Education according to Dewey would then become a process of reconstructing and synthesizing experience from within rather than the imposition of knowledge from without. He strove to liberate the child and the schools from the lockstep of tradition. The traditional school was a setting where little living took place. It was a place where pupils came to sit passively in seats bolted to the floor while an attempt was made to stuff their unreceptive minds with knowledge. Ordinarily, at best, this was a token effort to pass on the wisdom of the ages which society, or reigning educators deemed essential. It was against this traditional concept that Dewey reacted so strongly. He believed that if the curriculum were related more to the life of the child in his community, dealing with problems that were of genuine concern to him, the various subject fields would fall into a natural correlation. Outdoor education emerged, in part, as a manifestation of this concept of total-living in the child's own community.

Outdoor Education, An Outgrowth of the Pragmatic Influence. The educational movement popularly known as "Progressive Education" was undergirded with the philosophy of James and Dewey. This movement led to classroom procedures which capitalized on pupil purposing, pupil planning, pupil executing, and pupil evaluating. Education out-of-doors was a natural development in the move to liberate the learner from the lockstep of the traditional school. "Progressivism" envisioned schools as centers of democratic living. Teachers and pupils were to be partners in the joint enterprise of intelligent, social experience, and practice of the scientific method was basic to learning. The Progressive tenets of James and Dewey led to the development of the child-centered school, and experience-centered curriculums. Real problems based on the felt needs and interests of the learner were substituted for the artificial, "cook book" problems of the traditional school. "Progressivism" produced the community school concept. Extending the classroom into the out-of-doors for the purpose of learning was a logical by-product of the community school idea.

Concern has been expressed in recent years over the "...current anxiety that we are unsure of our democratic conception of education and that we have only fainthearted faith in it anyhow."¹⁸ Dewey maintained that democracy should

¹⁶John Dewey, Experience and Education (New York: The MacMillan Company, 1939), pp. 16-17.

¹⁷Ibid., p. 77

¹⁸John S. Brubacher, "The Challenge to Philosophize About Education," Modern Philosophies and Education, Fifty-fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1955), p. 15.

be more than a form of government; it should be a way of life, and the schools were the institutions in which the democratic ideal should be taught by living it. Perhaps one of outdoor education's greatest contributions can be made by providing the setting wherein pupils together with their teachers can "...learn to share decisions and their consequences even though this may mean testing out many things for themselves and sometimes reaching conclusions at variance with tradition."¹⁹

II. SOCIAL FACTORS

Changes in the function of the public schools seldom take place in a vacuum. Evaluation and reconstruction of school curriculum is usually motivated, or influenced to a degree, by a complex of social forces at work in the culture.

The Changing Family Structure. By the Thirties this country had witnessed several basic changes in the American family structure caused mainly by the advent of "industrial urban life." The average size of the family had decreased. The one family dwelling and size of family living quarters had also decreased. There were, on the other hand, a greater number of labor saving devices and conveniences in most households. The amount of leisure available to men and women had increased appreciably. Finally, the respective roles of men, women, and children had changed, and for that matter would undergo further change during the next thirty years.²⁰

The transformation from an agrarian to an industrial society had profound affect upon the American family. The large, close-knit family that had once carried on a good deal of its work in the home was replaced by smaller families whose members were often widely scattered because of divergent interests. The rather limited family recreation and strict control of social activities had given away to a commercial, often artificial recreational activity, and a general loosening of social controls. Women who formerly had remained in the home managed to combine marriage with a career. By the 1930's the dissolution of the family from the closely-knit social unit that it was in the days of agrarian society had progressed to the point where sociologists were viewing some of the results with alarm. The basic changes in family structure resulted in social maladjustments that were becoming commonplace in the Thirties and have since increased manyfold. These maladjustments manifested themselves in the form of marital unhappiness, infidelity, divorce, alcoholism, neuroticism, and juvenile delinquency.²¹

¹⁹Ibid.

²⁰Harold Rugg and William Withers, Social Foundations of Education (New York: Prentice-Hall, Incorporated, 1955), p. 258.

²¹The divorce rate in 1940 was 180 per 1,000 population as compared to 60 divorces per 1,000 in 1890. It was estimated that in 1940, approximately 3,000,000 children and youth were from broken homes. Harold Rugg, Foundations for American Education (Yonkers-on-Hudson: World Book Company, 1947), p. 583

Since the advent of industrialism the home has assumed proportionately less of the responsibility for the moral, social, and educational development of the child. In the highly integrated society of today other social agencies such as the school, the church, and numerous youth organizations have taken over many of the guiding functions of the young which were formerly the sole responsibility of the family. The American family over the years has also surrendered its basic functions of economic individualism to a collectivist trend which during the Thirties was further accelerated by economic stress. George S. Counts in 1934 wrote, "The current depression shows how helpless the individual or family may be in the face of social forces.... Whether men wish it or not, they live today in a world in which they must share increasingly both prosperity and adversity."²²

The development of the community school idea of which outdoor education was a by-product was a natural result of the transition from a loosely organized to a closely integrated society. Thus through a combination of social forces which served to weaken the structure of the American family, parents were psychologically prepared for accepting the idea of sending children into the outdoors for the purpose of living and learning together as a legitimate function of the modern public school.

Urbanization. The trend to urbanization brought with it a number of social problems. Large sections of rapidly growing cities consisting of row houses and tenement dwellings. Many families no longer had even a backyard or a front lawn. There was inadequate play space in crowded cities, thus forcing children to take to the streets. Large municipalities, of necessity, had to exert some form of social controls which frequently lead to regimentation and tensions from which citizens both adult and juvenile, felt the need for release. The American school calendar provided a two-month summer vacation. During the summer months crowded sections of large cities frequently became trouble spots fraught with danger for children and youth. Various social agencies as the Young Men's Christian Association, Police Boy's Clubs, Red Shield Boy's Club over the years have developed programs to care for children during the summer months. This care very often has taken the form of either day camping at a local playground or park, or longer term camping away from the city.

Escape from the crowded, hurried, high tension pace of city living has been a popular theme in recent years. The urge to turn to the open, to recapture some of the simple elements of living has found expression in several forms. The tremendous growth of family camping is one manifestation of this urge. This same basic force to re-establish roots in the wilderness gave rise, in part, to education in the outdoors as a function of the schools, which in turn gave rise to school camping.

Mobility of Population. A depression, improved means of transportation, and a World War have produced an extremely mobile society. During the depression years, thousands of families uprooted themselves in search of employment. War-time also saw countless numbers on the move following the development of new war industries. The war years also created tremendous unrest especially among

²² George S. Counts, The Social Foundations of Education, Report of the Commission on the Social Studies Part IX. (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934), p. 506.

young people. Massive population moves during these turbulent years tended to further the disintegration of the home. Some of the side effects were increased insecurity and emotional instability among young people. It was estimated that eight million out of forty-three million children changed homes in 1948 and 1949.²³

The United States could well be characterized as a nation on wheels with no place to go. The Sunday drive into the country has become practically a national institution. Each weekend thousands of families turn to their automobiles, some trailing boats behind, others with camping gear lashed to the car top, and head out from cities seeking a change from the hectic work-a-day world.

With the development of television, the nation also gained a kind of sedentary mobility. This tremendous technological advance enabled Americans, young and old, to sit comfortably in their homes and be transported vicariously to the far corners of the earth. Although television enlarged the world visually, it also contributed in its own way to the need for a return to outdoor activity. The magic eye of television helped bring the wonders of the world into the living room; yet knowledge of natural experiences in the open that were once an important part of the American heritage remained virtually unexplored.

The schools, too became increasingly mobile in the execution of their responsibilities. It was not at all unusual for an athletic team or members of a musical organization to be transported many miles in order to participate in extra-curricular activities. The availability of transportation and public acceptance of this mobility as a normal function of the school was a contributing factor, albeit a small one, to the development of school camping and outdoor education.

Conclusion. The rise of outdoor education is in keeping with a theory of cyclical change. Our civilization has progressed to the point where it has become too urban. The rush to the outdoors as evidenced by the increase in number of hunting and fishing licenses purchased annually, the hoards of people overrunning the camping grounds in state and national parks, and the tremendous growth of recreational boating in recent years are all indicative of man's striving to regain, or at least retain, some of the elemental aspects of his heritage. Education needs to be concerned with the behavior of the individual in his culture. If the culture is producing generations of hunters, fishermen and campers, there are those who contend it is education's task to provide suitable instruction in these areas. The Outdoor Education Project of the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation is, in fact, bent upon just such a task. Staff members of the project are endeavoring to promote the teaching of gun safety, fishing, and other outdoor recreational skills that have carry-over value for adult leisure.²⁴

²³Celia B. Stendler, "Wanted More Emotional Security for Children," National Education Association Journal, 41:139, March, 1952.

²⁴The purposes and program of the Outdoor Education Project are discussed in Occasional Paper No. 18.

During the pre and post-war years when tensions and pressures, frustration and anxiety were prevalent, it was vital that the American public school find the means for providing the basic ingredients that make for emotional stability and well-being. Many of the psychosomatic ailments which plague modern man might be alleviated if a closer bond to the more basic things in life could be established. Edward L. Thorndike once indicated that man needs to see himself in relation to the universe. He also expressed the thought that a knowledge of the "...great truths about...the continuity of living forms...[is] valuable for the conduct of life."²⁵

Sidney Hook pointed out that an interesting cultural phenomena of the late Thirties was the belated realization by men of science to the crucial social issues of the day. Vital to the survival of this nation with its "good life" is a belief in a commitment to the democratic ideal.²⁶ Where else could such an ideal be better achieved at an early age than in the total-living situation of the school camp environment? Hook said, "Democracy is an affirmation of certain attitudes and values which are more important than any particular set of institutions, because those attitudes and values must serve as the sensitive directing controls of institutional change."²⁷ The evolution of camping and other outdoor learning experiences in education was the result of just such an institutional change. Significantly, the seeds for outdoor education were sown during a time of international isolation with much stress placed on the teaching of United States history, and the need for national pride.

III. ECONOMIC FACTORS

From 1930 to 1960 the United States experienced two major economic upheavals. The first, a depression of such magnitude that it affected practically all levels of society. The second, a world war which, while serving to strengthen the economy, created social problems that contributed to the need for outdoor education.

Decade of Depression. The breakdown which contributed to the Great Depression was social in origin so the treatment of the problem had to be collective in nature. Roosevelt's New Deal policies signified a new era of government. Federal responsibilities were broadened in scope so that they touched practically all phases of the economy. Governmental agencies were created to develop, control, and regulate agriculture, industry, banking, water resources, and power. The government assumed responsibility for the social and economic welfare of the people. Agencies such as the Federal Emergency Relief Administration, and the Civil Works Administration were created.

This period in our history was a time of social and economic experimentation. The experiments which Roosevelt set in motion as an effort to save capitalism, reflect the influence of pragmatic thought in government and business. Roosevelt's social experiments took the form of large scale federal aid projects,

²⁵Edward L. Thorndike, Human Nature and the Social Order (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1940), p. 385.

²⁶Sidney Hook, Reason, Social Myths and Democracy (New York: The John Day Company, 1940), p. 227.

²⁷Ibid., p. 294.

and a tightening of economic regulations. The trend to the welfare state was seen in government, community life, and education. Federal funds were allocated to health, housing, education, relief, agriculture, flood control, and cheap electrical power.

Social effects of the depression. During the depression millions of children were undernourished. Countless numbers dwelt in highly congested ~~slum~~ areas, living in cramped quarters, and in districts lacking parks, playgrounds, and sunshine.²⁸ One of the selling points of early camping education was that the school camp environment provided healthful, outdoor living in the fresh air and sunshine.

The depression years saw a general moral and ethical decay. Drinking increased among the lower middle class, as did suicides among businessmen. Both marriage and divorce declined temporarily, and desertions increased. In this time of economic stress, the birth rate declined to such an extent that its effects were felt in school and college enrollments for the next two decades.²⁹

Re-appraisal of educational objectives. The depression indirectly led to a re-appraisal of the objectives of education. With millions of well trained individuals suddenly unable to apply their talents, educators were prompted to seek answers to a fundamental question: "What can education do to keep the economic machine from running into a ditch now and then, bringing injury to the young and to the Republic?"³⁰ As educators searched for an answer to this question, they reached the conclusion that greater stress should be placed upon the social studies. In 1936 the National Education Association's Commission on the Social Studies Curriculum briefly summarized the new aims of the social studies as:

(1) To give to pupils the most realistic knowledge that is possible of the community, state, nation, and the world -- the social and physical setting -- in which they live and are to live and make their way; (2) preparation of pupils for promoting wiser and more effective co-operation among regions, areas, individuals, groups, communities, states, and nations -- a co-operation interracial, interreligious, and intereconomic; (3) to develop character; to give pupils a love of truth, an appreciation of the beautiful, a bent toward good, and a desire and will to use knowledge for beneficent social ends; (4) training in the intellectual processes indispensable to the functioning of society.³¹

²⁸Counts, op. cit., p. 518

²⁹Harvey Wish, Society and Thought in Modern America (New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1952), p. 503.

³⁰Charles A. and Mary R. Beard, The Making of American Civilization (New York: The MacMillan Company, 1938), p. 868.

³¹Ibid., p. 869.

As more school systems and state departments of education turn their attention to the problem of curriculum revision new programs of instructional experimentation developed. The evolvement of outdoor education was one such development.

The need for conservation education. The droughts of 1934 and 1936 brought to light in a devastating manner the need for sound soil conservation measures. Fifty million acres of once productive land had been destroyed by wind and water erosion. Seventy-five percent of the productive land was subject to soil erosion and therefore threatened with destruction unless preventative measures were taken. Much the same situation existed with respect to forests, minerals, and wildlife.³² To slow down the rate at which America's top soil was blown and washed away, soil building crops were planted on thousands of acres, plowed under and then sown with a cover crop. Contour plowing and strip farming were put into practice thus controlling the amount of water run-off in the fields.

As the population expanded in the post-depression era, the need for greater effort to be put forth in the cause of conservation became more important. A lack of vital natural resources could seriously affect the entire American economy. The pressing need for conservation education was another contributing factor to the development of outdoor education.

World War II and the Post-War Period

World War II brought full employment to the nation and served as a tonic to the American economy. Education during the war years suffered badly, however. The public schools were faced with a serious shortage of qualified teachers. Many teachers who were not in service left the profession for better paying positions in defense work. The few resident outdoor education programs that had been established were brought to a standstill, and any further developments were temporarily curtailed.

Following World War II Americans once again achieved a high standard of living. The shortened work week and long weekends provided man with more leisure than he had previously known. Americans were thus faced with the unprecedented opportunity for the development of the individual. This opportunity could lead to the "...pursuit of happiness" in the sense in which Jefferson wrote, or it could lead to frustration, unhappiness and the deterioration of individual talents."³³

In the post-war period many people turned to the hypnotic glare of their television screens to fill the newfound "empty hours." Countless others, on the other hand, in a seemingly revolt against the sedentary comfort of their living rooms, and the restriction of urban living flocked to the out-of-doors for recreation. Since the war family camping has grown tremendously. An examination of a Sears Roebuck or Montgomery Ward Spring Catalog will show a large assortment of camping equipment for the family, ranging from tents, to cots, to the latest bottled gasoline lanterns and camp stoves. State and national parks overflow with campers each summer. In fact, at some of the more popular camp grounds it is necessary to make advance reservations in order to be sure of camping space.

³²William B. Ragan, Modern Elementary Curriculum (New York: Henry Holt and company, 1960), p. 64.

³³Educational Policies Commission, Public Education and the Future of America (Washington:DC., National Education Association, 1955), p. 93.

In conclusion, due to a combination of circumstances, the American people were, once again, becoming increasingly outdoor oriented and consequently were psychologically ready for outdoor education and school camping as a function of education. Whereas economic conditions of the Thirties had forbade full development of resident outdoor education, the economic boom which accompanied and followed World War II provided the means for educational experimentation. Americans found themselves confronted with newfound prosperity and leisure which conceivably could lead to the worthy goal of self-realization, a cultural renaissance so-to-speak, or to cultural deterioration. There is mounting evidence, however, that the American culture may, indeed, be proceeding toward the road to moral and ethical degeneration. The rise in juvenile crime, dope addiction, alcoholism, flagrant cheating in schools, and dishonesty and misrepresentation in business and profession do not reflect well upon the American way of life. Partial blame most certainly can be laid to the breakdown of the family structure. However, the social reconstruction adherents of the Thirties must also recognize the schools' failure in this respect.

IV. POLITICAL INFLUENCES

The federal government was the only agency capable of dealing adequately with the two major crises of depression and war which confronted the nation during the years 1930 to 1960. In the Thirties even local governments of wealthy municipalities were unable to meet the problems of education, and it was necessary to seek aid from the national government. The Civilian Conservation Corps³⁴ and the National Youth Administration took over many functions that ordinarily would have been the responsibility of either the home, or of local government.

The Civilian Conservation Corps

In 1933, congress empowered President Roosevelt to establish Civilian Conservation Camps in various sections of the country for unemployed young men. The C.C.C. was established for youths between seventeen and twenty-one years of age. The young men lived in camps where they worked mainly on conservation projects under the supervision of the War Department. The young workers were fed and housed by the government, and in addition received free medical care. The major portion of the small monthly wage received by each worker was sent home to aid his family. The idea of the nation's youth living and working in the healthful, attractive surroundings of the great outdoors had an especial appeal to the public imagination. Thus another step was taken toward psychological readiness for outdoor education.

C.C.C. labor has been credited with advancing the growth of national and state parks a normal half century.³⁵ The young workers constructed roads, bridges and shelters in state and national parks; created lakes, carved out hiking trails, cleared firebreaks, and planted seedlings on eroded land. The

³⁴The Civilian Conservation Corps is hereafter referred to as the C.C.C.

³⁵Dixon Wecter, The Age of the Great Depression 1929 -1941 (New York: The MacMillan Company, 1948), p. 222.

national parks had six million visitors in 1934. Just four years later this total surpassed sixteen million,³⁶ and by 1955 exceeded ninety million.³⁷

Most of the young men were from cities and had had little previous contact with outdoor life.

More than half the enrollees, city-bred, had small notion of what the American earth looked like. They knew it chiefly as it appeared in the motion pictures, or on brief hikes from the factories and pavements. Most of them could not have identified a half-a-dozen trees. The work of the camps took them to a direct contact with wood and soil and made them conscious of their native earth.³⁸

The idea of having direct contact with subject matter that could best be studied in a natural setting appeared later as a basic concept of outdoor education.

The creation of an educational program in camps undoubtedly set a pattern for later developments in outdoor education. Those young men who desired it were able to receive instruction in forestry management and practice. In addition, some general education and vocational instruction was offered to those who were interested. Courses offered in the educational program were classified as Elementary, High School, Vocational, College, and General.³⁹ The teaching method used in C.C.C. camps capitalized on establishing a group atmosphere as opposed to the traditional classroom atmosphere. In addition, instructors broke down the traditional school formalities and attempted to place initial responsibility for learning upon the student. It was reported that the C.C.C. student assumed "...a greater initiative and a more vigorous work attitude than in the public school."⁴⁰ The C.C.C. camp curriculum maintained a close relationship of study to life situations. The functionality of subject matter was constantly emphasized.

It was suggested that the C.C.C. might be retained as a permanent organization for training young men who were dissatisfied with school. Students could combine work experience and study in the process of carrying out useful public projects. Interestingly enough one of the first camping education pilot projects carried out in the State of Michigan was a work-learn experiment for older youth. The project was sponsored by the Department of Public Instruction in cooperation with the W.K. Kellogg Foundation and the Department of Conservation. The project was designed as a short term demonstration research project to find a plan of community education for older youth who were not in school. The project involved sixty boys from Ann Arbor, Bay City, and Dearborn, Michigan who lived, worked, and studied at Mill Lake Camp from February to June, 1951.

³⁶Ibid., p. 223

³⁷J. W. Smith, loc.cit.

³⁸Frank E. Hill, The School in the Camps the Educational Program of The Civilian Conservation Corps (New York: American Association for Adult Education, 1935), p. 8.

³⁹Ibid., p. 35

⁴⁰Ibid., p. 69.

It has been claimed that probably the greatest accomplishment of the C.C.C. "...was the physical development of the boys resulting from steady work, good meals, and regular hours."⁴¹ Pittinger contends that public school physical education is woefully inadequate as evidenced by the proportionately large number of youth rejected as unfit for armed service in both world wars. He also maintained that school camps are needed, if for no other reason than to improve the physical fitness of the nation's youth. This would appear to be a rather unrealistic claim, however, as a single week of outdoor living, which is the usual pattern in resident outdoor education, that great a difference in the total physical-well being of an individual.

In summary, the Civilian Conservation Corps provided camping facilities in state and national parks, and created a general awareness of the need for conservation education. The educational program of the C.C.C. demonstrated that education and life could be merged into one creative experience in a camp environment, thus paving the way for resident outdoor education.

V. EDUCATIONAL INFLUENCES

Public school education during the years 1930-1960 was in a state of flux. Educational objectives were broadened in scope, learning theory changed, and school curriculums examined and revised. In bygone days children and youth lived in a world of animals and crops, "...and wild nature, the green or snowy margin ever at the door, a standing lure to learning and doing."⁴² It was during a time of educational assessment that an effort was made to reinstate to education just such a standing lure to learning and doing." This period of educational re-appraisal was characterized by the term "Progressive". Curricular innovations during these years were, in part, a reaction against the narrow, "lifeless" curriculum of the traditional school. There was a move to broaden the entire range of experience which it was thought children should have. Efforts were made to enrich the curriculum by means of audio-visual aids in the classroom, and field trips into the community. Adherents of the "new curriculum" were not deploring the use of traditional methods as much as they were advocating that the primary goal of instruction be to improve conduct and to solve the practical problems of living. The scientific method of problem solving became the method of experimentalism." The development of outdoor education was simply one manifestation of prevailing thought that the school should become a primary force for creating desirable social change.

The School Broadens its Objectives

During the chaotic depression and post-depression years the school gradually assumed broader functions in an effort to meet the changing needs of society. Many of the responsibilities that previously had been assigned to the home were now included in the schools' objectives. For example, the school accepted the responsibility for the physical and emotional well being of the student as well.

⁴¹A. O. Pittinger, "School Camps: A Needed Post-War Development," Curriculum Journal, 14:216, May, 1943.

⁴²General Education in a Free Society (Report of the Harvard Committee, Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1948), p. 17.

as for his intellectual growth. The effect of the depression upon children's health was a key factor in enlarging the school's function. Numerous children were not able to receive an adequate, well-balanced diet at home. Consequently, many schools began providing milk, or juice and cookies once a day for a nominal charge. School children also received periodic physical examinations free of charge.

During the depression the reduction in work opportunities for youth led some secondary schools to introduce work experience into the curriculum. One of the four major objectives of the early camping education programs, interestingly enough, was that of providing purposeful work experience for children and youth.

As the range of educational objectives broadened the schools included objectives relating to home life, civic life, vocational interests, and personal relations. The objectives of the modern school encompassed not only knowledge and intellectual abilities, but interests, attitudes, and social and recreational skills as well. A frequent commentary was that developing social skills and a cooperative attitude was given as much emphasis by the modern school during this period as that given to developing science concepts, or teaching the skills involved in reading.

The broadening objectives of education were expressed in a number of ways at various educational organizations. Although stated by different times by different groups, the objectives were basically the same. In 1938, the Progressive Education Association appointed a committee to draw up a statement of the Association's philosophy of education. The committee identified three essential goals of education: (1) the ability and willingness to think reflectively in meeting the problems of living; (2) the desire and ability to cooperate in solving common problems; and (3) the cultivation of the attitude of social responsibility. In 1943, the National Resources Board drafted a series of proposals for a post-war educational program. The program was to include education for leisure, home and family living, national security and citizenship health and safety, vocational education, and social and economic education.

Another aspect of the broadening function of the schools was the stress placed upon health and physical education. Attention was first directed to the health and general physical well being of children during the depression. The Second World War served to concentrate attention once again upon objectives of physical fitness. Willard Olson in his text, Child Development, states the long range goals of physical education as, "...health, happiness, and productivity in the individual."⁴³ Outdoor education provides the vehicle for meeting some of these goals as well as providing an avenue through which children may develop various motor skills.

In this period of expanding functions of education, new teaching tools and methods of instruction were devised and utilized in order to help meet the developmental needs of children. Educational objectives were broadened to relate to the mental, physical, social, emotional, and esthetic aspects of living. "Since educational camping provides opportunity for guidance in many

⁴³Willard Olson, Child Development (Boston: D.C. Heath and Company, 1959), p. 98.

or all of these phases, it [was developed] as another tool or facility for helping to reach the broader goals of education..."⁴⁴

Changing Views of Educational Psychology

During the first quarter of the twentieth century educational objectives had generally been stated in terms of faculty psychology; i.e., objectives were stated in terms of the faculties of the mind to be trained. Faculty psychology was supplanted, however, by the view that learning should produce a change in behavior. Thus, educational objectives were soon being stated in behavioral terms. The prevailing psychology of the Thirties indicated that learning could be interpreted most readily in terms of what the learner did, or the manner in which he reacted to a particular situation. Thus curriculum guides and courses of study spoke of "learning activities," "study activities," and "laboratory activities."⁴⁵

Child study findings stressed the importance of recognizing individual differences in the growth process. With this emphasis upon individual development there was a corresponding move in curriculum away from compartmentalization of subject matter. Rigid standards for uniform performance of learning were viewed more leniently. Children with varying capacities for learning were encouraged to work at their own rate of comprehension, and classroom instruction was adapted to varying levels of performance by grouping pupils according to ability.

In recent years educational psychology has changed its focus from a psychology of the individual to a psychology which attempts to understand the individual in his relations as a member of many groups. Attention is given in the main to the attitudes and motives of the learner in light of the various roles which he plays at home, at school, with family, and with peers. This view of learning placed great stress on learning to get along with others, adjusting to the group, and learning to reach group decisions. "Group Process" and "group dynamics" were bywords of the day. The emphasis upon group adjustment in educational psychology was another of the many forces which lent support to the outdoor education idea. The following statement expresses as well as any, the prevailing view of learning that endorses camping as a function of education:

Learning involves...experiencing in which the total organism undergoes change as a result of interaction with the environment. Problem solving is one of the chief means of education and it is the function of the curriculum to provide experiences that are significant and useful in the ongoing process of living.⁴⁶

⁴⁴M. E. McKnight, "Contributions and Potentialities of School Camping," (unpublished Doctoral dissertation, Teacher's College, Columbia University, New York, 1952), p. 30.

⁴⁵Tyler, Ralph W., "The Curriculum -- Then and Now," The Elementary School Journal, 57:368, April, 1957.

⁴⁶Ragan, op.cit., p. 15.

In conclusion, from 1933 to 1945, emphasis was on the schools' responsibility for meeting the needs of children. Consequently, child study data constituted the major source of data for determining educational objectives. Since World War II, and particularly since the advent of Sputnik I great import has been placed upon the opinion of subject matter specialists in determining the objectives of education. This is particularly true in the fields related to science and mathematics.

Curriculum Reorganization

During the turbulent Thirties conditions were such that American education was in a state of re-examination and change. Emphasis was placed upon a "new curriculum" whose aims would lead to the reconstruction of community life. Harold Rugg, a chief advocate for social reconstruction commented:

...the progressive improvement of our social order through the production of cultured persons and their creative reconstruction of the community and national life... the new school as the conscious agent... this is the central theme of the new education.⁴⁷

The sociological research conducted by Robert and Helen Lynd in 1935 and published in 1937 as Middletown in Transition,⁴⁸ shed considerable light on the state of educational flux in which many Middletowns found themselves in the mid-Thirties. The Middletown Public Schools were in the midst of a ten year program of school planning and reorganization which had been started in 1928. Central to this reorganization was the redefinition of an educational philosophy which focused upon the needs and development of the individual.⁴⁹ A guidance program including cumulative record folders that would follow an individual through his academic career was instituted, and curriculum changes at both the secondary and elementary level were carried out.

The Child-centered school. A characteristic of the child-centered school which had direct bearing upon the development of outdoor education has been referred to by Harold Rugg as "orienting activities." In Rugg's own words orienting activities consisted of "...visits to field, farm and woods," that would provide the learner with "concrete acquaintance with the physical world and the world of plants and animals. At the same time, he is developing attitudes toward other people, toward things growing, toward all that constitutes his immediate world."⁵⁰

The Community school. A new emphasis appeared in public school education in the early Thirties. The new trend was toward the idea of a community-centered school in which the content of education would be found in the manifold experiences and activities of the local community. The school became

⁴⁷Harold Rugg, Culture and Education in America (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1931), p. 346.

⁴⁸This research was undertaken as a follow-up to the original study carried out in 1925 and published as, Middletown.

⁴⁹Robert and Helen Lynd, Middletown in Transition (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1937), p. 220.

⁵⁰Rugg, op. cit., p. 30.

the agency through which community improvement would take place. Book learning would be supplemented by means of firsthand investigation of community life. The social role of the school was stressed and much import placed upon integrating school activities with actual needs and problems of the community.

The second Middletown study provides an example of the aims of the community school movement. In the fall of 1936 it was announced that schools in Middletown would pay particular attention to the teaching of "information about local facts and history." The announcement read:

Schools will stress the teaching of information about Middletown this year. Study of the community will include industries of the city, with something of their history, evolution, products, processes of manufacture, and markets; utilities; police and fire protection offered; form and machinery of the city's government; and other important elements affecting intelligent citizenship in the community.⁵¹

This and similar recommendations for a rich learning environment in which pupils would have an opportunity to be doing as well as listening, led to the use of school gardens, shops, and laboratories. The school ventured out into the community, and the community, in turn, became an integral part of the total learning environment. Schools were used as agencies to improve the life of the community. The community became a literal extension of the school plant. Pupils and teachers moved out from the schoolroom into the community classroom and back again as the nature of their studies dictated. Thus the community school concept was another of the foundations upon which outdoor education was constructed.

The activity curriculum. The "activity" curriculum, sometimes called the "project" or "experience" curriculum was still another manifestation of the revolt in education against traditionalism. The influence of Dewey and his interpreters led to the curriculums that were structured around "areas of living," or "common learnings," and these in turn, found expression in the experience curriculum.

The curriculum of the so-called "modern" school was built around pupil activity motivated by the desire to solve a problem. It was argued that the traditional school represented passive learning. There was some fear that the inventiveness and creativeness of the individual would be repressed if prescribed content was imposed from without. Curriculums were revised, therefore to integrate subjects into a core of interrelated studies which could be drawn upon as the need arose. Thus, learning activities were cooperatively planned by pupils and teachers. The onus was upon meeting the needs and interests of the individual, and problem solving was a dominant method. The evolution of outdoor education most certainly was a concomitant of the "activity movement" of the Thirties.

Education for democracy. Political events in Europe during the Thirties posed a challenge to the future of democratic government. Education rose to the challenge. The Educational Policies Commission in 1937 stressed the

⁵¹R. and H. Lynd, op.cit., p. 237. 22

importance of the democratic ideal in education with the statement, "... any realistic definition of education for the United States [must include] the whole philosophy and practice of democracy."⁵² An essential aim of the modern elementary school thus was to produce citizens capable of preserving and improving the democratic way of life. There followed an emphasis on democratic living in the classroom. Greater stress was placed upon providing pupils with the knowledge and skills that would equip them for dealing with everyday problems of living in a democratic society. Election of classroom and school officers, frequent use of committee organization, and pupil-teacher planning became standard classroom procedure.

This concern with the task of education was felt in all walks of life. Even public servants were echoing prevailing educational theory. Governor Alfred M. Landon in an address delivered at Chatauqua, New York on August 24, 1936, exclaimed, "If education is to realize its true goal, it cannot confine itself to academic discussion of life -- it must become a part of life itself."⁵³

Aided by scientific and technological advances, the United States during the past century progressed through an agricultural and industrial revolution. The transformation was accompanied by profound political, social and economic changes. The Educational Policies Commission had written, "In face of this vast transformation there exists a critical need for strengthening the traditional principles of freedom, equality, and self-government which are at the core of the American way of life."⁵⁴ Particularly, during the Thirties and Forties were the American principles of freedom, equality, and self-government faced with powerful challenges from totalitarian ideologies. It fell to education to assume the task of strengthening these democratic values. School camps were advocated by their adherents as laboratories for democratic living where children could practice democracy in action. One educator phrased the plea for outdoor education and school camping in the following manner:

No school is too small, too poor, or too poorly equipped to start, on the next school day, exploration just outside the school building, carrying it as far as transportation will permit, and no school or university is so well-equipped or so advanced in its learning that it cannot profit by exploration at home and abroad. But for young people to live most abundantly and democratically in a community of their own, each school must be equipped with a good camp as well as with library, gymnasium, laboratory and other facilities.⁵⁵

⁵² Educational Policies Commission, The Unique Function of Education In American Democracy (Washington, DC: National Education Association 1937) p.89.

⁵³ Ibid., pp. 121-122

⁵⁴ Educational Policies Commission, Public Education and the Future of America (Washington DC: National Education Association, 1955) p. 6

⁵⁵ Viola L. Stevens, "Promoting Out-of-the-Classroom Education and Camping in the Cleveland Heights Schools Through Organized Planning and An Experimental Two-Week Camping Experience For Children of a Fourth Grade Class," National Camp Problems (New York: Life Camps, Incorporated, 1947), p. 92 *Italics mine*.

VI. SUMMARY

In our discussion of the diverse and interwoven complex of socio-cultural forces which exerted prime influence upon the emergence of outdoor education on the American public school scene, five major areas of influence were examined. These were the philosophical, social, economic, political and educational factors at work in our culture which either directly or indirectly influenced the development of this relatively recent area of emphasis in education. Analysis of the five areas of influence mentioned above as related to the socio-cultural complex leads to the formulation of the following propositions:

1. Philosophical basis for education in the out-of-doors is contained in the doctrines of Rousseau, Herbart, Pestalozzi and Spencer.
2. Support for the outdoor education idea can be found in the views of three modern philosopher-educators: William James, John Dewey, and Alfred N. Whitehead.
3. School camping or resident outdoor education evolved as one aspect of a general reaction against traditionalism in education.
4. School camping developed, in part, as a result of the influence of pragmatism upon the aims of education.
5. The emergence of camping in education was an outgrowth of a period of internal social and economic stress.
6. The trend to urbanization helped create a need for outdoor education.
7. Increased mobility of the population facilitated a general move to outdoor activity.
8. The socialistic trend in government indirectly prepared the public for the acceptance of camping in education.
9. The Civilian Conservation Corps, on a national scale, served as a forerunner of school camping at the local level.
10. The educational program of the C.C.C. created a psychological readiness for subsequent acceptance of learning in the out-of-doors as a function of education.
11. The need for conservation education contributed to the development of outdoor education which, in turn, led to school camping or resident outdoor education.
12. Resident outdoor education emerged, in part, as a manifestation of the broadening functions of the school.
13. School camping evolved under the influence of experimentalism in education.
14. The psychology of "adjustment to the group" supported the aims of resident outdoor education as a total living experience.
15. School camping developed as an expression of the need to preserve and promote the democratic ideal.
16. The community school concept was instrumental in the development of outdoor education.